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Senior Leader Mentoring: Its Role in Leader Development Doctrine

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This study addresses the role of senior leaders as mentors in the Army's leader development process. Principally, this study investigated the proper role of senior leader mentoring as a viable component of the Army's leader development doctrine. It examines civilian and military studies on mentoring to determine the components of mentoring and its benefits as well as detractors for organizations, mentors, and subordinates. The results of an exploratory survey of eleven retired and active duty, active component Army General Officers is analyzed and compared to previous studies on the phenomenon of mentoring. This comparison provides the basis for suggesting the proper role of senior leader mentoring in the Army. Senior leader mentoring's applicability to the unit assignment, institutional training, and self development pillars of the Army's leader development process is analyzed to determine its doctrinal feasibility. This study suggests that senior leader mentoring is a valuable method to use to help develop Army officers. It demonstrates that teaching, coaching, counseling, advising, and sponsoring are valid mentoring activities and as such should be included in the Army's leader development doctrine and become expected behavior by senior leaders to enhance subordinate leader development.

Mentoring, Leader Development, Leader Development Doctrine, Coaching, Teaching, Counseling, Advising, Guiding, Sponsoring 104

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ITS ROLE IN LEADER DEVELOPMENT DOCTRINE

A thesis presented to the Faculty of the U.S. Army Command and General Staff College in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree

MASTER OF MILITARY ART AND SCIENCE

by

MARK L. RITTER, MAJ, USA
B.S., United States Military Academy, West Point, NY, 1981

Fort Leavenworth, Kansas
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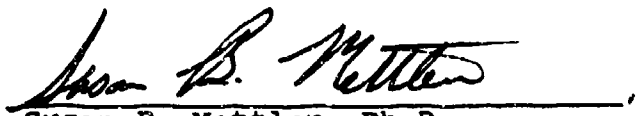
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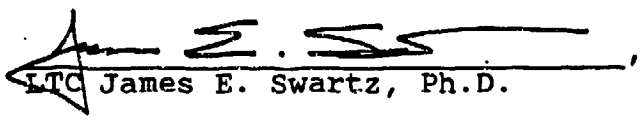
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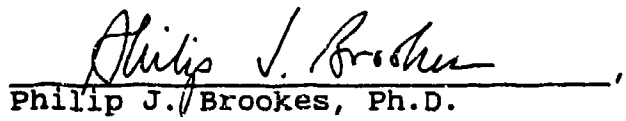
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ABSTRACT

SENIOR LEADER MENTORING: ITS ROLE IN LEADER DEVELOPMENT DOCTRINE: An Analysis of Senior Leader Mentoring in the U.S. Army's Leader Development Process, by Major Mark L. Ritter, Infantry, USA, 104 pages.

This study addresses the role of senior leaders as mentors in the Army's leader development process. Principally, this study investigated the proper role of senior leader mentoring as a viable component of the Army's leader development doctrine.

It examines civilian and military studies on mentoring to determine the components of mentoring and its benefits as well as detractors for organizations, mentors, and subordinates. The results of an exploratory survey of eleven retired and active duty, active component Army General Officers is analyzed and compared to previous studies on the phenomenon of mentoring. This comparison provides the basis for suggesting the proper role of senior leader mentoring in the Army.

Senior leader mentoring's applicability to the unit assignment, institutional training, and self development pillars of the Army's leader development process is analyzed to determine its doctrinal feasibility.

This study suggests that senior leader mentoring is a valuable method to use to help develop Army officers. It demonstrates that teaching, coaching, counseling, advising, and sponsoring are valid mentoring activities and as such should be included in the Army's leader development doctrine and become expected behavior by senior leaders to enhance subordinate leader development.

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I also wish to thank the many mentors that I have been fortunate to have during my life, beginning with my parents, Ronald and Nancy Ritter, who taught me to set goals and persevere to achieve those goals.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

Chapter Page

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Purpose

History is replete with examples of mentoring relationships that are credited with spawning successful Army officers. An example of high visibility mentorship is found among the World War II senior officers. General John J. Pershing mentored such notable officers as George S. Patton, Jr., George C. Marshall, and Douglas MacArthur.[1] General Dwight D. Eisenhower directly credited Brigadier General Fox Conner as a mentor who encouraged him to learn and develop.[2] Fox Conner was instrumental in connecting Eisenhower with Marshall.[3] Marshall was known as a mentor who exposed his protege's to higher echelons to enhance their development.[4] It was Eisenhower's direct relationship with Marshall that resulted in his being elevated from the rank of Lieutenant Colonel to Commander of the European Theater of Operations in less than three years.[5]

General William E. DePuy was also recognized as a "teacher and mentor to the Army's rising leaders."[6] During his tenure in the Pentagon as the Assistant Vice Chief of the Army, Depuy developed a style of mentoring that included:

> isolating bright, relatively junior officers from other chores to brainstorm specific problems and come up with comprehensive conceptual recommendations. These could quickly gain the approval of superiors and, with it, the authority to guide detailed planning, thus avoiding the tedious and diluting process of gaining approval of a detailed plan from every affected staff agency before sending it to a higher authority.[7]

He continued to mentor subordinates in order to complete the revision of FM 100-5, Army Operations during his tenure as the commander of Training and Doctrine Command. His ability to work closely with subordinates, such as then Major Generals Donn A. Starry and Paul F. Gorman, and a small group of Lieutenant Colonels and Majors nicknamed the "boathouse gang," enabled him to produce the 1976 version of FM 100-5.[8] Starry and Gorman went on to attain the rank of General. Of the eight military members of the "boathouse gang," six are currently serving as General Officers. While the success of these officers has not been directly attributed to DePuy's influence, the similarities indicate his mentoring may have helped their careers.

The examples of mentoring relationships have a common theme; they are extremely personal in nature. An indication of this deep, personal nature of mentorship was reflected by Patton's ending his 30-year relationship with Pershing, after Pershing went public with criticism of his protege over the famous slapping incident in 1943.[9] The mentoring relationships cited were all different in appearance based on personalities and circumstances;

however, they all resulted in helping to produce officers who successfully led the Army during combat.

Previous research indicates mentoring is an important factor in the development of leaders. A 1989 Master of Military Art and Science thesis prepared by MAJ James Mason demonstrated that mentoring is an important aspect of senior officer development and the development of their subordinates. While the purpose of Mason's study was to explore the differences between black and white officers' mentoring experiences, the results were not found to be ethnically bound. Other military authors have written articles in professional journals that tout the need for leaders to assume a mentoring role to develop their subordinates. However, no current research has fully explored the impact of the mentoring experience on the leader development process.

In the preface of FM 22-100, Military Leadership, General Carl E. Vuono, then Chief of Staff of the Army, indicated that a significant goal of the Army's leader development doctrine is to develop competent and confident leaders.[10] While history can provide useful examples to follow, the Army's leader development doctrine cannot be based solely on examples of past success stories. The doctrine should be derived from a study of requirements and an analysis of methods to meet those requirements. This study will examine the mentoring role of senior leaders in

the Army's leader development process. An analysis will be presented documenting the extent to which current Army doctrine supports the mentoring role of senior leaders. Finally this thesis will describe how leadership doctrine should support mentoring in the Army.

Department of the Army Pamphlet 600-32, Leader Development for the Total Army, sets the stage for demonstrating the importance of the Army's leader development process by stating:

> Confident, competent leaders do not just suddenly appear. They are developed. They develop over time through a carefully designed progression of schools, job experiences, and individually initiated activities.[11]

The process of developing leaders through the "three equally important pillars: Institutional Training . . . Operational Assignments . . . Self-development"[12] is the foundation of the Army's leader development doctrine. An initial look at the doctrine suggests that mentoring may not be emphasized as an important aspect of leader development. This thesis examines the extent to which Army doctrine emphasizes senior leader mentoring as an important element of the leader development process.

Additionally, this thesis analyzes previously conducted studies on mentoring to determine how mentoring influences the development of leaders. This analysis is compared to data compiled from exploratory surveys of eleven General Officers. The survey group was formed from

available former or current Major Army Command commanders, members of the Department of the Army Staff, and Command and General Staff College Deputy Commandants. The data acquired through these exploratory survey interviews captures the experiences and recommendations on mentoring from the Army's current and past senior leadership and/or leader development experts.

Hypothesis and Research Questions

The primary hypothesis for this study is: The role of the senior leader as a mentor should be integrated into the Army's leader development doctrine.

The seeming dichotomy of mentoring's importance as shown by previous studies, vice the lack of reference to the mentoring experience in the Army's leader development doctrine leads to this thesis's primary research question: What should be the mentoring role of senior leaders in the Army's leader development process?

In order to answer the primary research question of this thesis several subquestions must be examined. The first subquestion is: How does senior leaders' mentoring enhance their subordinates' leader development process? The second subquestion is: To what extent does current Army doctrine support mentoring as a component of the leader development process? The third subquestion is: How do widely recognized successful senior leaders believe mentoring should be treated in leader development doctrine?

The fourth subquestion is: To what extent should doctrine support mentoring as a component of the leader development process?

The Delimitations

This study limits the examination of mentorship in leader development to the active component Army officer leader development process. It does not examine the impact of mentoring on reserve component, warrant officers, non-commissioned officers, or civilian leaders because these groups are each governed by different career development guidelines. To explore the impact of mentoring in accordance with each type of career development guideline is beyond the scope of this thesis.

This study does not examine ethnic and/or gender based differences and their effects on mentoring relationships. The multiplicity of possible combinations of mentor and protege relationship differences caused by gender, race, or religion would greatly expand a study beyond the scope of this thesis. These effects, if there are any, are of secondary importance to the analysis of mentoring as a leader development tool for the Army as a whole. They may be worthy of future study.

The Limitations

This thesis cannot establish a causal relationship between success and mentoring. This study will also not be

able to obtain the views of the interviewed senior leaders' mentors, nor can it confirm data from the interviews.

Definition of Terms

The definitions of the following terms apply to this study.

Career Patterns The course of assignments an officer completes with the purpose of gaining advancements in the Army or performing duties required by the Army. Is doctrinally guided by requirements for promotion and assignment criteria as established in DA PAM 600-3, Commissioned Officer Professional Development and Utilization.

Coaching The process of on-going, on-the-job training carried out regularly by a person with the intent of developing another person's skills. The act of coaching includes the use of performance feedback and constructive modeling by the coach.[13]

Counseling "Talking with a person in a way which helps that person solve a problem, correct performance, or improve performance."[14]

Doctrine In accordance with FM 100-5, Army Operations, doctrine is the expression of how the Army intends to conduct operations. It is an authoritative statement that guides specific operations yet is flexible enough to address diverse and varied situations. It is the

Army's way of describing how to think about issues and facilitates communication about those issues.[15]

Leader Development Doctrine The doctrine developed by the Army that expresses how it intends to produce leaders. The Army's leader development doctrine is found in Department of the Army Field Manuals, Pamphlets and Training Circulars.

Mentoring Mason defined mentoring as: "an informal relationship in which a person of greater rank and expertise teaches, counsels, guides, develops and takes a personal interest in the professional career of a younger adult."[16] For the purposes of this study, Mason's definition is too limited. It limits mentors' roles to teaching, counseling, guiding, and developing. This study expands the definition of mentoring to be a personal relationship between a mentor and a protege that is intended to enhance the protege's "professional and/or social development."[17]

Protege The officer who is being mentored by another officer.

Senior Leader Mentor A battalion commander or higher who takes a personal interest in the development of another individual (protege) who is normally a subordinate and provides help and guidance to the protege.[18]

Sponsoring "The process whereby higher-level officers with special interest in more junior officers (not necessarily under their command) provide advice and see that

the [junior] officer . . . is considered for appropriate assignments."[19]

Successful Leader The April 1988 Leader Development Action Plan states that successful officers "should be measured by their contribution as opposed to rank or position attained."[20] This definition of success is appropriate for the goal of the Army's leader development program; however, for the purpose of this study, it does not adequately define the unique characteristics of the senior leaders interviewed in this study. For the purpose of this study the definition of success when discussing the purpose of leader development remains constant with the above definition; however, successful senior leaders interviewed are defined as General Officers who have or are serving in positions of great responsibility. Those senior leaders selected to participate in the study have demonstrated their abilities at the highest levels of the Army. Not all Army officers claim to have a mentor or have been a protege. As General Officers however, the selected interview group have had ample opportunity to experience a mentoring relationship either as a mentor, protege, or both.

Assumptions

1. Senior leaders can develop and improve their mentoring skills.

2. Proteges perceive mentoring as being beneficial to their development.

3. Mentoring enhances the leader development process.

The Significance of the Study

FM 100-5 states that of the four elements of combat power, leadership, maneuver, firepower, and protection, leadership holds primacy.

> Once the force is engaged, superior combat power derives from the courage and competence of soldiers, the excellence of their training, the capability of their equipment, the soundness of their combined arms doctrine, and, above all, the quality of their leadership.[21]

The Army has a responsibility to design its leader development doctrine so that it is easily understood and that it adequately describes all of the fundamental aspects of leader development. The product of this leader development, successful leaders, will be capable of providing the quality leadership required to maximize the combat power of their unit. Leader development by its very nature is an imprecise subject that means different things to different people. The realities of varied unit and soldier needs make establishing leader development programs a difficult task for individuals, units, and the Army. As is evidenced by discussions during numerous Battalion and Brigade Pre-Command Courses at Fort Leavenworth, many future commanders are unable to express how they intended to run

their unit's leader development program. This problem could be the result of many things, not least of which is a fundamental disagreement among commanders on what the important aspects of leader development are. This study compares the mentoring experiences of several successful leaders to determine if our leader development doctrine adequately accounts for mentoring as an aspect of the developmental process of officers. If the doctrine does not fully describe the mentoring experiences of the study group, this study will suggest how the doctrine can or should be modified to include mentoring as a significant aspect of leader development.

Endnotes

1. Kenneth A. Jolemore, "The Mentor: More Than a Teacher, More Than a Coach," Military Review, July 1986, 5-6.

2. Dwight D. Eisenhower, At Ease: Stories I Tell to Friends (Garden City, New York: Doubleday and Co., 1967), 185-87.

3. Mark C. Bender, Watershed at Leavenworth (Fort Leavenworth: CGSC Press, Mar 1990), 58.

4. Joseph C. Dooley, "George C. Marshall: A Study in Mentorship," Carlisle Barracks, Pennsylvania: US Army War College, 30 April 1990, 21.

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7. Paul H. Herbert, Deciding What Has to Be Done: General William E. DePuy and the 1976 Edition of FM 100-5, Operations, Fort Leavenworth, Kansas: US Army Command and General Staff College, 1988, 23.

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9. Martin Blumenson, The Patton Papers, Nineteen Forty to Nineteen Forty-Five (Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1975), 379.

10. US Army, FM 22-100, Military Leadership (Washington DC: Department of the Army, 1990), i.

11. US Army, DA PAM 600-32, Leader Development for the Total Army (Washington D.C.: Department of the Army, 1991), 10.

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13. Steven R. Stewart, "Leader Development Training Needs Assessment of US Army Battalion Commanders," Research Report 969, US Army Research Institute for the Behavioral and Social Sciences, Nov 1992, 10.

14. FM 22-100, 49.

15. US Army, FM 100-5, Army Operations (Washington, DC: Department of the Army, 1993), 1-1 to 1-2.

16. E., James Mason, "Mentoring: Its Effect on Black Officers' Career Progression Within the US Army", MMAS, US Army Command and General Staff College: Ft. Leavenworth, 1989, 9.

17. Stewart, Nov 92, 12.

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20. US Army, Leader Development Study Final Report (Washington DC: Department of the Army, 1988), xviii.

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CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Introduction

A close examination of the available literature is necessary to conduct an analysis of the Army's leader development doctrine and to gain insights on the leadership phenomenon of mentorship. This chapter will review Army doctrinal manuals and published and unpublished literature that explore mentoring as a leader development tool. Much has been written about mentoring and its effects on the work place. The desire to improve leadership vice a managerial focus to improve productivity in civilian business has led to much of the discussion on how mentoring can be used to help develop leaders in the corporate world.

Through a review of literature two of this thesis' subquestions can be answered. This chapter provides the basis to answer subquestion one: How does senior leaders' mentoring enhance their subordinate's leader development process? Answering this subquestion is done by analyzing literature discussing the roles and functions of the mentoring process. This literature is found in published and unpublished studies conducted in both the civilian and military communities.

An analysis of current Army doctrinal literature found in Department of the Army Field Manuals (FM), Pamphlets (DA PAM), and Training Circulars (TC) is presented in order to answer this thesis' second subquestion: To what extent does current Army doctrine support mentoring as a component of the leader development process?

Mentoring is a difficult subject to define. Many people have different ideas and concepts as to what mentoring is and if it is beneficial or has drawbacks for organizations and individuals. These viewpoints range from Eliza G. C. Collins and Patricia Scott's article in Harvard Business Review entitled, "Everyone Who Makes It Has a Mentor" that demonstrates the value of mentoring in the Jewel Tea Company;[1] to Henry Cisneros' rejection of the need to have a mentor to make a career during Janice R. Joplin's interview with Cisneros for an Academy of Management Executive article.[2]

In order to fully explore the many aspects of mentoring, this chapter is organized to define the mentoring relationship between mentor and protege and analyze the mentoring components of sponsoring, teaching, coaching, and counseling. Literature discussing ways mentoring benefits organizations, mentors, and proteges and negative aspects of mentoring are presented. Ideas written by military and civilian authors recommending ways to encourage and establish mentoring programs are analyzed. Finally,

mentoring guidelines established by civilian organizations and by military doctrine are presented.

The Mentoring Relationship

> The derivation of the term "mentor" dates back to Greek mythology. Mentor having been the wise counselor and friend to whom Ulysses entrusted his own son while he set off on a ten-year odyssey. Mentor played a number of roles including that of father figure, teacher, trusted advisor, and protector to an inexperienced young man, and the relationship was one that involved a great deal of mutual trust and affection.[3]

Dr. Rudi Klauss applied this description of mentoring tc business organizations. He describes mentoring as an informal, intense relationship involving counseling, guiding, career molding, sponsoring, coaching, and advising.[4] David M. Hunt and Carol Michael recognized mentorship "as a critical on-the-job training development tool for career success."[5] They describe mentorship as involving:

> a unique, often emotionally interpersonal, type of support and advising role that can be used to train and develop talented proteges in many careers and organizations.[6]

Following research involving 15,000 employees in a large northeastern public utility, Dr. Kathy E. Kram of Boston University also recognized the importance of mentorship in an organization and identified four phases of a mentor relationship: initiation phase, cultivation phase, separation phase, and redefinition phase.[7] Each of these phases has distinct characteristics and functions.

The initiation phase involves the mentor and protege identifying the desire to begin a mentoring relationship. The young manager admires the senior manager and begins to look to him for support and guidance. Reciprocally, the mentor sees the protege as an individual with potential with whom he may enjoy working, and he begins giving the protege developmental opportunities. As Raymond A. Noe explains,

> The relationship may be initiated by either party. Often the protege attracts the attention of the mentor through outstanding job performance or similarity in interests or hobbies.[8]

The cultivation phase was characterized by the mentor providing the protege challenging work, coaching, counseling, friendship, exposure and visibility, protection, and/or sponsorship. Benefits of the relationship are recognized by both parties. The protege sees that the relationship "contributed to his growing sense of competence and enabled him to navigate more effectively in his immediate organizational world."[9] The mentor recognized that "this phase of the relationship produced substantial satisfaction in knowing that he had positively influenced a younger individual's development."[10] The cultivation phase establishes the boundaries of the mentoring relationship and eliminates the uncertainty of the initiation phase.

The separation phase can be caused by reassignment or by promotion of the protege. It has been seen to be emotionally difficult but can also be rewarding as the

protege has an opportunity to demonstrate his independence and autonomy, and the mentor demonstrates that he "has been successful in developing new managerial talent."[11] The redefinition phase is characterized by a bond that is generally one of friendship involving mutual trust and admiration.

Kram's phases of mentoring relationships are somewhat analogous to the Army's unit leader development program phases as outline in FM 25-101, Battle Focused Training.[12] The unit leader development phases of reception and integration, basic skills development, and advanced development and sustainment, are similar to Kram's initiation and cultivation phases. The similarities are that they involve identifying subordinate training and developmental needs and developing methods to meet those needs. While the redefinition phase of Kram's theory is not accounted for by the Army, the separation phase can be seen as the point when the Army leader either returns to the institutional training pillar of the leader development system or another unit assignment.

A recurring theme supported by many of the authors describes mentorship as an emotional and intense personal interaction between two people. According to Noe, "the majority of mentorships are informal; that is, the two persons are interested in establishing a relationship."[13]

Such a relationship would seem unlikely to be able to be legislated or assigned.[14]

Mentorship does not seem to be a unique experience that will only happen once in a career. In a study examining mentoring and its relationship to socioeconomic origins, William Whitely, et al, concluded, "Success may increase career mentoring or lead to mentoring by more influential superiors."[15] Military history seems to support this notion as Martin Blumenson discussed that Patton attempted to model himself after many of his teachers.[16] Kram's research found:

> It is likely that an individual will have, over the course of an organizational career, several developmental relationships that provide a range of critical career and psychosocial functions at each life/career stage. The wish to find one senior manager who will continue to be responsive to individual concerns, is one that is likely to generate considerable disappointment and disillusionment.[17]

While civilian models and studies serve a useful purpose in describing interpersonal relationships in business organizations, they may or may not be completely applicable to the military. The organizational structure and purpose of the military makes it unique in our society. As was pointed out in the 1985 Professional Development of Officer's Study (PDOS), "The Army is different from a civilian corporation. For example, the Army is a hazardous profession and there is no negotiation of labor with management."[18] Additionally, where a civilian company can

hire a specialist to enhance its performance in a specific area, the Army uses a closed personnel system that prevents the recruitment of leaders from outside organizations for the purpose of meeting an immediate organizational need. The Army also has a highly regulated promotion and assignment system that is not required by all civilian corporations. However, there are many parallels between the civilian and military views of mentoring's importance.

Military personnel have extensively studied and analyzed various aspects of leader development, including mentoring. In conducting a study incorporating 112 Air War College designees, Captain Francis Lewandowski found that mentoring among his survey group was as prevalent as it was in private industry.[19] This finding was also supported by Major E. James Mason's 1988 study that compared mentoring among black and white senior leaders.[20]

The purpose of the 1985 Professional Development of Officers Study (PDOS) was to make recommendations to the Chief of Staff Army (CSA) on changes to the officer professional development system. A portion of the PDOS looked at: "how we can better develop and employ mentors."[21] It defined a mentor as a leader who develops "an individual by being for that individual a role model, teacher, coach, advisor, and guide. In the PDOS Executive Summary, the role of mentors both in operational assignments and in the

institutional training pillars of the leader development system was identified:

> The mentor is the facilitator who makes the development system work. The commander and supervisor, as mentors in units and organizations, must understand the development needs of their subordinates and actively provide the guidance and coaching necessary to ensure the officers are developing in their duty assignments. Faculty leaders are mentors in schools who provide experience and guidance and overwatch the course material to ensure that student officers gain a new frame of reference and have the opportunity for practical application through simulations, role playing and small group exercises.[22]

The PDOS was based on a survey of 23,000 commissioned officers (lieutenants through colonels) and a survey of 436 general officers. The results of the survey indicated that the majority (88%) of the officer corps accepted and approved of mentoring as a component of leader development but that some (59%) felt they did not have leaders who mentored them and the school system did not foster mentoring.[23] "Ninety six percent of the surveyed officers agreed that commanders should be evaluated on the extent they develop the officers serving under them."[24]

The PDOS researchers relied on civilian mentoring literature to emphasize the value of a mentoring approach to leader development. However, the study's identification of mentoring's roles did not include "sponsoring" as is indicated by the official definition that included the terms: role model, teacher, coach, advisor, and guide.[25]

The omission of the mentor's sponsoring role is explained by Lieutenant General Charles W. Bagnal, who led the PDOS, in the July 1985 Military Review article, "Leaders as Mentors." He defined mentoring as it applies to the Army as a style of leadership:

> characterized by open communication with subordinates, role modeling of appropriate values, the effective use of counseling for subordinate development and sharing of the leader's frame of reference with subordinate leaders. The emphasis in this definition is clearly on the subordinate development and not on the sponsorship aspects of mentorship.[26]

Bagnal described the steps he felt were necessary to make leaders become mentors. The first step he identified was to "clearly define the role of the Army leader as a mentor"[27] intending the use of the above definition.

In a 1992 Army Research Institute (ARI) study that assessed leader development training needs of battalion commanders, Dr. Steven R. Stewart concluded that "mentoring is a poorly understood concept often confused with related activities--coaching, counseling, and sponsoring."[28] A previous ARI study conducted by Dr. Stevens and Dr. Jack M. Hicks in 1987 assessed leader development training among TRADOC brigade commanders. Similarly, it found that "there was evidently a pronounced degree of confusion about the concept of mentoring."[29] The principal definitions of mentoring by the survey group included: teaching and counseling sessions, and fostering a command climate that

tolerated mistakes. The prevalent view of mentoring was that it provided:

> the political connections that are sometimes thought to either assure rapid promotion at a given point in time or secure the positions/assignments that will lead to rapid advancement in the future.[30]

Major E. James Mason concluded in his 1988 MMAS thesis:

> Senior Army officers perceive that the critical roles of a mentor are that of a role model, counselor, and teacher. The majority of the senior officers perceived roles of a protector and sponsor as less important.[31]

In an Army War College study project, Lieutenant Colonel Richard Goring described the effect of a leader using a mentoring approach had on fostering a positive command climate. Goring emphasized the need for the mentor to teach, coach, and counsel his subordinates in an informal manner.[32]

Captain Lewandowski's study showed the primary roles of mentors were thought to be: advisors, teachers, and motivators. This result showed a change from the survey group's protege viewpoint which listed role model, sponsor, motivator, and advisor as the primary functions of a mentor. Lewandowski explained that the difference was possibly an indication of an evolution of thought on mentoring as the protege became a mentor.[33] This difference serves to further amplify the disparity of opinions on the roles of a mentoring relationship.

Major General Kenneth A. Jolemore described ten mentor functions in terms of their applicability to the Army in a 1986 Military Review article entitled, "The Mentor: More than a Teacher, More than a Coach." The mentor functions discussed are: teaching, guiding, advising, sponsoring, role modeling, validating, counseling, motivating, protecting, and communicating.[34]

Lieutenant Colonel Albert E. Lassiter and Lieutenant Colonel Danny C. Rehm conducted a study to determine if the Air Force should adopt a formal mentoring program in 1990. As part of the study they surveyed 449 officers across the Air Force school system. The definition of mentoring they used included the ten functions described by Jolemore. Forty percent of the officers surveyed reported having a mentoring relationship of which 89 percent felt mentoring had a moderate to significant effect on their career. Sixty percent of those not having a mentor "wished they had a mentor to help with their career and professional development."[35] The study pointed out that the mentoring relationships were voluntary, personal in nature, and usually resulted from mentor initiation and subsequent sustainment by both the mentor and protege.[36]

The Army did not follow-up on the studies that were conducted on the significance of mentoring. The purpose of the 1987 Leader Development Study (LDS) was to assess the state of the Army's leader development program and to

determine future leader development needs out to the year 2002.[37] It was essentially an effort to follow up on the progress of the earlier PDOS. The LDS did not include mentoring as a point of emphasis for developing leaders of the future. The study did not address mentors or mentoring at all. The by-product of the study, the Leader Development Action Plan (LDAP), was completed April 1988. It made recommendations to the Army leadership based upon the previous LDS. The LDAP similarly did not emphasize the role of mentoring in the leader development process.

The review of literature indicates that there are varying definitions of the mentoring relationship depending on the authors' point of view. Consistencies that were found include: mentoring relationships are personal and beneficial to individuals and organizations; the relationship phases can be predicted; and the roles of mentorship appear similar for civilians and military personnel, although the components of the relationship vary. The Army, however, has not yet formally defined the role of mentorship.

Sponsoring

As stated earlier, sponsoring is defined as the process whereby higher-level leaders with special interest in more junior employees provide advice and see that the junior person is considered for appropriate assignments.

Networking is a popular term used in civilian business to describe the efforts of businessmen to extend their contacts with other businessmen in an effort to enhance themselves and help their companies. As explained by Hunt and Michael, the social network or interpersonal relations between the mentor and top level executives in an organization falls within the total context of mentorship as "chance influential connections" when the mentor can extend these executive's assistance to the protege.[38] Hunt and Michael also conclude that "mentorship is an important tool for upward professional progression in organizations."[39] In studying the lack of mentoring opportunities for women, Noe drew a parallel between lack of mentoring with advancement problems for women due to an absence of sponsoring.[40] In an article detailing ways for women to get ahead in business, Carol Milano advised women to start networking, as it is a proven method to lead them to influential people and to find a mentor to help.[41]

While Bagnal, and subsequently the Army, downplayed the role of sponsoring in a mentoring relationship, the PDOS fully acknowledged the research of civilians that highlighted the advantages of sponsoring.[42] A possible reason for this exclusion of sponsorship may lie in the reactions that the PDOS received from influential commanders in the Army. General Kingston, then commander of CENTCOM, stated that the Army should be "careful in defining

[mentoring] to the field. 'Mentor' carries the connotation of godfather patronage."[43] General Thompson, then commander of Army Materiel Command, "added that mentoring should also imply that the mentor should be able to exert some influence in a career, not nepotism, but assist in career decisions (i.e., assignments)."[44] While these statements are not directly opposed to sponsorship, the negative images created by terms such as "godfather patronage" and "nepotism" are enough to question the proper role of sponsorship within the Army. Bagnal leaves no doubt as to his views on the issue of sponsorship when he wrote:

> The primary role of Army mentors is clearly that of a coach not a sponsor. Certainly, a mentor may have a profound effect on the careers of their proteges when they intervene to ensure that their proteges obtain desirable assignments. However, such a sponsorship role is not a desirable aspect of Army mentorship because is results in perceptions of favoritism, elitism and promotion by riding the coattails of influential senior officers. This type of mentorship cannot be condoned in the Army.[45]

Mason found that sponsorship was not as important to his survey group as the were the roles of role model, counselor, and teacher.[46]

Captain Jeffery A. Gouge conducted a study that examined mentoring from the protege's perspective and concluded, "the term sponsor has sustained negative connotations within the Air Force."[47] His survey data indicated that potential proteges were looking for a mentor

that could improve their talents, not for the purposes of getting a "free ride."[48]

Lassiter and Rehm identified that while there are many negative perceptions of the sponsoring aspect of mentorship, these perceptions may be unfounded because of the risk sponsoring entails for the mentor. They determined that because the protege's success is based on his performance after the mentor opens a door through sponsoring, the mentor will "be cautious and deliberate before sponsoring someone; and such risk taking by the mentor would be based on a high level of confidence in the protege."[49] The risk that a mentor incurs upon sponsoring a protege may likely temper irresponsible sponsoring that would be harmful to the organization.

Lewandowski's study also closely explored sponsorship and Air Force attitudes regarding the mentorship role of sponsoring. His study showed that the greatest difference in mentor and protege definitions of mentorship roles involved sponsoring. The proteges viewed sponsoring as one of the three primary roles of a mentor while mentors selected the role of advisor over sponsoring. Unmentored officers viewed sponsoring negatively. He concluded the difference of views held by mentors and proteges was that the proteges had the advantage of hindsight and were able to understand the value of their mentors' sponsoring role.[50]

Lewandowski's study did not support the notions that sponsoring was necessary to be promoted ahead of peers. He concluded there were no significant differences in the promotion rates of mentored and unmentored officers.[51] This research indicates there is no unfair advantage given to an officer who has a mentor. Proteges do, however, have the opportunity to grow under the tutelage of a more experienced officer. The study also showed that protege candidates were most likely chosen because they already demonstrated potential to perform well.[52]

Although Lewandowski's study seems to demonstrate that mentoring does not give a protege an unfair advantage over unmentored officers, it does not address the issue of perceptions. Dr. Michael G. Zey discussed in his book The Mentor Connection how the perception of favoritism in a mentoring relationship can be harmful to an organization.[53] Perceptions can be as damaging as reality because they tend to be reality for the beholder. The perception of mentoring' sponsor role giving a protege an unfair advantage can be especially harmful in a regimented personnel system as in the Army because such systems' effectiveness is largely based on equitable treatment of personnel.

Jolemore directly opposed the Army and Bagnal's exclusion of sponsoring from the list of mentorship roles.[54] He used the historical examples of successful sponsoring relationships that spurred the careers of World War II

leaders, such as Marshall, Patton, MacArthur, Eisenhower, Bradley, and Nimitz, to demonstrate that civilian concepts of the mentorship role of sponsoring was applicable to the military. Jolemore's conclusion based on this analysis was that:

> It is through the mentor behaviors of teaching, guiding, advising and counseling that a mentor will identify several subordinates who in his or her opinion deserve special attention and, therefore, might become proteges who will benefit from the additional mentor behaviors of promoting and sponsoring.[55]

The review of literature indicates that there are varying opinions towards sponsoring as a proper role of mentorship. The sharpest contrasts seem to be between the civilian and military communities' willingness to embrace sponsoring. The lack of support in the Army may be a result of the military's regimented and somewhat objective promotion system that relies on performance reports as a gauge for determining promotion selections. Sponsoring may be viewed as an unfair advantage to some officers based on the influence of particular mentors, thereby, violating the regimentation and objectivity of the promotion system. However, some military researchers, such as Jolemore and Lewandowski, have concluded that sponsoring is generally beneficial in that it allows officers with talent to showcase that talent and that it does not necessarily lead to earlier promotions. Clearly, an awareness of the potential problems caused by negative perceptions must be

accounted for by the mentor and the protege if sponsoring becomes a role in military mentoring relationship.

Teaching, Coaching, and Counseling

As is demonstrated earlier in this chapter, teaching, coaching, and counseling are mentorship roles that enjoy wide support both in the military and civilian communities. It is necessary to examine how these roles are beneficial in a mentoring relationship.

Klauss viewed coaching as "a part of a supervisor's responsibility in developing his/her subordinates,"[56] and counseling as a means for the protege and mentor to determine the former's developmental needs in order to develop strategies for subsequent instruction or training.[57] Noe supports the interrelationships of these roles by describing how they facilitate the mentor's ability to help the protege in discussing their fears and developing strategies to assist in meeting work objectives.[58]

This advantage of counseling in a mentoring relationship was identified by the Federal Women's Program Committee of Fort Leavenworth. It established a mentoring program in 1992 for women civil service employees.[59] This program was intended to seek volunteer mentors for the primary purpose of counseling proteges in career enhancement and instructing them in ways to overcome career obstacles as

women seemed to not be receiving this assistance in the work place.

A number of military studies have demonstrated that teaching, coaching, and counseling in some form are valuable aspects of a mentoring relationship. Mason's study showed that of the three roles, "teacher" was felt to be most important.[60] Lassiter and Rehm pointed out that the Army Officer Evaluation System (OER) system makes counseling a required activity. They explained that the OER support form counseling system provides "a forum for increased communication, feedback, advice, and vocalization of aspirations, concerns, and ambitions" which are similar to the interaction that exists in a mentoring relationship.[61]

The PDOS emphasized the role of teaching as a responsibility of the mentor in its recommended new schoolhouse strategy and its mentor-based strategy for units.[62] The PDOS determined that the faculty of the Army school system should mentor students as well as write doctrine to ensure subject matter expertise was gained and maintained. To facilitate a mentoring relationship between the faculty and students, PDOS called for institutionalizing small group instruction techniques in the Officer Advanced Courses. The PDOS recommended mentor-based strategy in units included counseling as well as teaching when it said commanders should "establish the necessary developmental

climate within which constructive feedback is provided to the individual officer."[63]

Although the LDS and LDAP did not use the term mentor, they did emphasize the commander's teacher and counselor roles. The LDS determined they were part of a number of interrelated processes within the leader development system.[64] The LDAP identified formal and informal counseling and the use of the OER as means to assist officers in conducting developmental assessments.[65]

The need for counseling has been identified for all levels of officers. Dr. Elliott Jaques led an 1986 Army Research Institute study of senior leadership performance requirements at the executive level that identified coaching as a required action that needed to be intensified as an officer transitions to a new duty position.[66]

Mentoring Benefits

The PDOS recommended developing a mentorship strategy in the Army school system and in units in order "to develop an officer corps characterized by an ability to think and adapt to the demands of a fast paced tactical situation."[67] Noe supports this idea that mentoring can increase the protege's sense of competence when the mentor encourages experimenting with new behaviors.[68] Another way that mentoring has been shown to be beneficial to proteges in civilian organizations is through increased promotion

rates and compensations.[69] The concept of mentoring helping promotion is not supported by military studies. This may be due to the emphasis of the military on organizational effectiveness and officers' selfless service vice careerism.

Mason described mentoring "as a method of improving subordinates' professional performance and preparing selected individuals for positions of increased responsibilities."[70] He also concluded that senior officers view mentoring as a way they can help proteges to achieve job satisfaction and reach their potential, making them beneficial to the Army.[71] Klauss' research also showed mentoring was helpful in preparing proteges for senior level positions as the mentor helps them acquire skills and confidence.[72]

Hunt and Michael explained a dual benefit of mentoring by showing that it not only develops proteges' technical knowledge, but also helps them learn how to operate within the organization. They also found that mentoring improves professions as a whole because proteges tend to become mentors themselves, causing the formation of a society of professions.[73] In a 1993 Manager's Magazine article, Dr. Lee E. Robert contended "most successful managers agree that mentoring is an important way to build on the collective knowledge of generations of successful . . . professionals."[74]

Krysa wrote of the importance of the Army having an officers corps that possessed professional values and that "mentoring can play an important role in shaping the value systems of young officers."[75] These values include: loyalty to the nation, the Army,the unit; duty; selfless service; integrity; commitment; competence; candor; and courage.[76] The above values are addressed in FM 22-100, Military Leadership,[77] and FM 22-103, Leadership and Command at Senior Levels,[78] and are seen as essential to effective leadership. The PDOS survey also indicated that Army officers felt instilling values was a benefit of mentoring.[79] This view of mentoring can be seen as beneficial to the entire Army if an appropriate value system is part of the knowledge that is passed through the generations of mentors.

The mentor is also able to gain benefits from the mentoring relationship. He can receive recognition and respect from his peers as well as the protege's friendship and admiration. The mentor's reputation is enhanced as his superiors:

> increasingly recognize the mentor's ability to develop people. And as each candidate [protege] succeeds, the mentor increasingly gains organizational credibility that goes beyond his skills as a department chief; he slowly becomes part of the managerial succession program. In many cases, the mentor becomes absorbed into the senior management policy apparatus as a result of his enhanced reputation.[80]

As the protege's skills are increased, the mentor may realize increased promotional opportunities as his

organization becomes more effective. He may also derive a degree of personal satisfaction in his ability to develop the protege.[81] Lewandowski's study found mentors in the Air Force realized more job satisfaction than did non-mentors.[82]

While the focus of mentoring has generally been on the benefits it provides proteges, there are "many positive implications of mentor-protege interaction for the employing organization."[83] The mentor also experiences career enhancement as a result of a positive mentoring relationship.[84]

Negative Aspects of Mentoring

Klauss found in the study of mentoring's negative aspects that, "the notion of mentors providing a clear and uncomplicated avenue to career success is far from being fully accurate" as resentment from persons outside of the relationship, such as peers, superiors, and spouses, can cause tension.[85] These tensions can naturally result in loss of mentor, protege, or organizational effectiveness.

The emotional aspects of a relationship that is as personal in nature as mentoring may cause problems for both the mentor and protege. Kram discovered that feelings of resentment and hostility may occur between the mentor and protege during the separation phase of the mentoring relationship.[86]

A potential risk to the mentor is that protege failure may reflect poorly on the mentor, particularly if he provided public support for his protege.[87]

A possible negative aspect of mentorship is the perceptions of the relationship by outsiders. As discussed earlier, there are differing opinions between those who have experienced a mentoring relationship and those who have not. Studies have shown "that the mentored officer places significantly more value on mentoring as a leadership development tool than his unmentored counterpart."[88]

Comments such as "nepotism" and "godfather patronage" are indicative of possible resentments that can be felt by some members of an organization. This seems to be particularly true when sponsoring is viewed as the primary benefit of mentorship. If mentoring is viewed as an exclusionary relationship, the organization may experience a division between the haves and have-nots. Such a division could be disruptive to the organization's task accomplishment. Because the Army's ultimate goal for leader development is to benefit the organization, such a disruption may make mentoring inappropriate for inclusion into Army doctrine.

Mentor Programs

Rudi Klauss completed an extensive analysis of the formal mentoring programs established by the Internal Revenue Service, the Science and Education Administration in the Department of Agriculture, and the Fourth Federal Executive Development Program. He concluded that such formal programs can be beneficial. Because formal programs by definition are not entirely participant driven, Klauss determined several lessons learned that can help make formal mentoring programs work. These lessons included: the need to carefully match mentors with proteges; relationship roles and expectations must be clearly defined; expectations should be realistic based on each situation; and the onus of ensuring the relationship works is on the protege.[89]

The Jewel Tea Company provides another example of an organization that benefited from a formal mentoring program.[90] Jewel's program developed as a result of successful mentoring relationships between successive CEOs and presidents. Jewel's program did not fit the model discussed previously. It was essentially a intensive initial training period for a new MBA recruit conducted by a senior executive for the purpose of orienting the recruit to the company. Following the orientation period, the assigned mentor recommended where the recruit would work. The mentor was usually not the recruit's immediate supervisor. If the relationship continued to develop along the lines of

traditional mentoring after the initial orientation period, it was of the informal nature.

An example of a localized governmental organization mentoring program is found at Fort Leavenworth, Kansas. The Federal Women's Program Committee mentoring program was established as a voluntary formal program in 1992.[91] The program design involves sign-ups by potential protege and mentor candidates who are subsequently matched together. The matching of mentor and protege is based on common duty descriptions. The relationship exists in a manner that does not interfere with either party's job. The program has created 50-60 mentoring relationships that have been characterized as being particularly beneficial to the protege. The apparent benefits of this effort has resulted in similar programs being developed by other minority employment program committees at Fort Leavenworth and at other military installations.[92]

The Army has no formal Army-wide mentoring program. The closest thing to an institutionalized program involves the use of small group instruction throughout the Army school system as recommended by the PDOS. The small group instruction model is based on one instructor teaching only one student group at a time while concurrently writing doctrine and conducting course design.[93] The intent of this method of instruction was to produce an instructor with the knowledge and abilities to mentor students. Reducing the

class size was intended to enhance the instructor's opportunity to mentor students because of the increased opportunity for interpersonal interaction that occurs in a smaller class. According to Bagnal, the challenge to implementing mentoring in units is to "develop all leaders as teachers and coaches who have the skills and knowledge to use a mentorship style of leadership with their subordinates."[94] Bagnal identified actions that have to be taken to develop these skills. They are: determine realistic leader mentoring roles; provide leaders training in the school system on how to mentor; establish policies such as increased board selection of proven mentors to reward mentoring behavior; and establish command climates within units that foster mentor flexibility and protege risk taking.[95]

In a 1986 Army War College student essay, Colonel Joseph M. Mabry, Sr. identified the use of the OER Support Form dialog throughout the rating period to assist in the mentoring process.[96] As Lassiter and Rehm observed, the OER Support Form requirement is the closest directive that resembles institutionalized mentoring in the Army.[97]

Based on his positive experiences with a commander that he felt was a good mentor, Goring recommended a mentoring strategy that included informal conversations with subordinates on relevant professional issues. He contends mentoring should be accomplished two levels down in rank.

He also emphasized developing a command climate that fosters teamwork, common goal and standard setting, information sharing and leadership by example to assist the mentoring process that will develop leaders.[98] Stewart's 1992 ARI study also showed that in general, mentoring should be conducted two levels down to be effective.[99] The reason for the contention that mentoring should occur two levels down is unclear. Possible reasons may include the familiarity with the current OER system that emphasizes the senior rater's portion of the OER or it may simply be that the age difference between two levels of officers is beneficial to a mentoring relationship.

In a 1988 Military Review article Lieutenant Colonel George B. Forsythe et. al., presented a leader development plan intended for use in units. The plan, while intended to be a systematic alternative to the vague term of mentoring, incorporated many of the aspects of mentoring that have been presented in this chapter. Its successful execution relied upon personal interaction between the leader and the subordinate to facilitate "tailoring [subordinate] experiences to the needs and potential of each individual."[100] The steps of this process were: identifying who gets developed based on individual needs; identifying the individual's developmental goals in light of current and future job requirements; identifying the current state of development based on an assessment of the subordinates

skills as determined by personal observations and counseling; together with the subordinate, determine specific developmental objectives that will achieve the developmental goals based on his current state of development; determine and inform the subordinate on the method of progress assessment; design a strategy to implement the development plan that include one or more methods such as teaching, coaching, role modeling, and systematic feedback (counseling).[101]

There is debate on the usefulness of establishing formal mentorship programs within organizations because the personal nature of the mentor-protege relationship would be difficult to legislate or impose upon people. Gouge represents the view that mentoring is a natural process that only needs a conducive environment in which to grow. He contended that if Air Force leaders understood their responsibilities to their subordinates, then mentoring would occur naturally and regulation may cause it to die.[102]

The above examples of mentorship-enhancing programs demonstrate ways some organizations and authors have attempted to derive the benefit of some form mentoring through formal programs.

Doctrinal Mentoring Guidelines

The Army has published numerous doctrinal manuals that define and attempt to integrate leadership training and

leader development. FM 100-1, The Army, and FM 100-5, Operations, are the basic manuals that describe what the Army's role is in the defense of the nation and how the Army plans to conduct operations. In its discussion of leadership, FM 100-1 describes the three pillars of the Army's leader development program: formal schooling, professional experience (in units), and self development. FM 100-1 emphasizes the role of properly developing leaders by saying, "Major trends in military operations suggest the exercise of individual leadership will become more prevalent than ever before, hence, the vital importance of leader development."[103] As discussed previously, FM 100-5 also emphasizes leadership by describing it as the most important element of combat power. These manuals provide the basis for developing the doctrinal literature that explains the Army's leader development program.

FM 100-1 is the Army's capstone document that describes the purpose and roles of the Army and its soldiers. It describes mentoring as being 'vital' in developing subordinates' "ability to take appropriate action on their own initiative in support of the commander's intent."[104]

DA PAM 600-32, Leader Development for the Total Army, outlines and institutionalizes the Army's approach to the leader development process. It discusses how the pillars of institutional training, operational assignments, and self

development support leader development. Mentoring is generally treated as a leader action on par with teaching, coaching and counseling.

In discussing institutional training, DA PAM 600-32 states:

> Commanders and supervisors also assist their subordinates in remaining knowledgeable of and competitive for institutional training selection by teaching, coaching, and mentoring them.[105]

While DA PAM 600-32 does discuss the use of small group instruction in the school system, it does not include mentoring by instructors as outlined by the PDOS.

DA PAM 600-32 includes mentoring along with teaching, training, and counseling as a commander's responsibility in the operational assignment pillar.[106]

The operational assignments pillar of the leader development process is greatly impacted on by the quality of training received while a member of a unit. Leader development is discussed in the Army's training manuals. FM 25-100, Training the Force, establishes the principles of the Army's training doctrine. FM 25-101, Battle Focused Training, explains how to implement the training principles found in FM 25-100. In presenting the leader development training responsibilities of commanders, both manuals include mentoring as well as coaching, teaching,[107] guiding, and listening and thinking with subordinates.[108] However, mentoring is not included in the unit leader development

example plan described in Appendix B, FM 25-101, and nor does either manual define mentoring or how to mentor.

DA PAM 600-32 places the responsibility for the self development pillar of leader development on the individual.[109] It does not emphasize the role of a commander or mentor as a potential catalyst for improving individual self development. However, STP 21-III-MQS, Military Qualification Standards III, the leader development manual for majors and lieutenant colonels, identifies mentoring is a requisite skill for leadership at the senior level.[110]

FM 22-103, Leadership and Command at Senior Levels, identifies mentoring as a subset of the senior leader's professional communications skill of teaching. It states: developing teaching skills create senior leaders who "are also seen as mentors and coaches by those with whom they interact."[111] In discussing the senior leader role of developer, the primary skills are stated to be teaching, coaching, and establishing a command climate that promotes initiative, agility and risk taking.[112] The presentation of mentoring in FM 22-103 suggests that it is an activity or leadership tool on par with teaching and coaching. This is somewhat different than the results of previously discussed studies that describe teaching and coaching as component aspects of mentoring.

The current draft FM 22-103 elevates the mentoring role of the senior leader by including mentoring along with

leader development as a "constant task for all leaders."[113] However, it too does not define mentoring nor delineate its role in conjunction with teaching, coaching, or command climate.

Summary

The review of literature indicates a general acceptance by both civilian and military of mentoring. There is considerable evidence that the teaching, coaching, counseling, and sponsoring efforts of an experienced senior leader is beneficial to the development of junior leaders. The personal relationship that exists between mentor and protege seems to be the facilitator of effective teaching, coaching, and counseling. Mentorship can be viewed as an effective means of providing opportunities for further protege growth. Another commonly accepted characteristic of mentoring is its ability to foster a climate of teamwork and open communications in the work place. This climate, combined with the confidence imparted by a mentor, in turn encourages proteges to take risks in an effort to exceed expected performance standards.

Defining the essential elements of mentorship is key in developing effective mentoring relationships. This has proven to be true in both informal and formal programs. Formal programs generally define mentoring based on the particular needs of the organization. Evidence has been

shown that proteges are likely to become mentors. These proteges-turned-mentors generally use their experiences as the basis for defining the informal mentoring relationship.

Mentoring is generally viewed in a favorable light in civilian and military communities. The greatest point of difference between the two communities is the support for the mentoring role of sponsor. While it is clear mentor sponsoring does occur in the military, the Army has not officially embraced the concept as a desirous activity and has not included sponsoring as an aspect of leader development.

The Army's doctrinal literature includes, in varying degrees, mentoring as an aspect of the leader development process. However, mentoring is not clearly defined in a way that senior leaders can integrate it with their leader development programs. Except for sponsoring, doctrinal literature does prescribe the practice of the mentoring aspects described previously.

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CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Introduction

This chapter describes how the study "Senior Leader Mentors: Their Role in Leader Development" was conducted. The chapter contains descriptions of: the study; the survey instrument and how it was conducted; the subjects of the survey; and an explanation of the method used to conduct the data analysis.

Description of the Study

This study addresses the role of senior leaders as mentors in the Army's leader development process. Specifically, the purpose of the thesis is to determine how the Army should treat mentoring as a component of the leader development process as reflected by doctrinal literature and/or policies.

A review and analysis of the available literature was conducted to determine how mentoring contributes to the development of leaders. Some common aspects of mentoring were also evident through the review of civilian and military studies related to mentoring. The Army's doctrinal literature was reviewed to determine the depth of support

the Army has for mentoring as a tool in the leader development process. An exploratory survey in the form of face-to-face interviews was conducted with eleven general officers. This data was analyzed and compared to the previously conducted literature review. The survey reports and records the perceptions of a sample of the Army's leader development experts. While a survey of a limited subset of a population does not guarantee the data accurately reflects the opinions of the entire population, it does provide an indication of attitudes and perceptions.

The comparison of the interview data and the literature research data formed the basis for this study's analysis of mentoring. The objective of the study was to address four specific questions:

1. How does senior leader mentoring enhance their subordinates' leader development process?

2. To what extent does current Army doctrine support mentoring as a component of the leader development process?

3. How do widely recognized successful senior leaders believe mentoring should be treated in leader development doctrine?

4. To what extent should doctrine support mentoring as a component of the leader development process?

The research questions are specifically addressed in Chapters 4 and 5.

Description of the Survey

As discussed earlier, an exploratory survey was conducted during focused interviews. The focused interview method was used to examine how successful senior leaders view mentorship in the Army and how it impacts the leader development process and doctrine. This type of focused interview is not the most efficient instrument for exploratory research due to the difficulty in interpreting answers given by the sample group and making statements about the entire population from the sample group's answers.[1] However, the use of open-ended questions in an interview setting is highly effective in drawing out specific thoughts and allowing amplification of those thoughts. Dr. Sharan Merriam noted that in studying the phenomenon of mentoring: "Investigators who use the interview method, rather than the survey, have tended to find a higher incidence of mentoring."[2] Since the interview questions are open-ended, the survey group is able to give more detailed answers than a closed survey format would allow.

Description of the Subjects

The target population of the survey was successful current and retired active component Army senior officers. Since the study's hypothesis is the role of the senior leader as a mentor should be integrated into the Army's

leader development doctrine, the opinions of the senior leaders was thought to be valuable in testing the hypothesis.

The subjects chosen to participate in the survey were four retired and seven active duty General Officers. The survey group was restricted to General Officers because their time in service increased the likelihood that they have experienced a mentoring relationship and their attainment of General Officer rank indicates that they have succeeded within the Army. An additional qualifier in the selection process was a desire to survey General Officers who are familiar with leader development and/or doctrinal issues. This delimitation also increased the probability that the survey group could speak knowledgeably about the subject of mentoring in the leader development process.

The Pre-Command Course (PCC), held at Fort Leavenworth, Kansas, is designed to prepare future battalion and brigade commanders to assume command of their units. A major subject discussed in this course is leadership and the leader development responsibilities of senior level commanders. The principal members of the Department of the Army Staff participate in the PCC as guest speakers. The members of the Army Staff were asked to participate in this study's interview process. Participation was based upon their schedule flexibility. The information gained from the interviews of the Army Staff General Officers was valuable

to the study because it represents the views of the current senior leadership and the current policies of the Army.

The Battle Command Training Program (BCTP) Senior Observers were also included in the survey group. These retired General Officers have the opportunity to work with and observe each of the Army's corps and division commanders. The Senior Observers, who are appointed personally by the Chief of Staff of the Army, act as mentors to teach and coach the Army's division and corps commanders and staffs during the extremely challenging training event of a BCTP exercise. In doing so, they are able to directly impact the Army's senior commanders on doctrinal and leadership issues.[3] Their current Army-wide exposure to different units' commanders and staffs, combined with their experience and expertise in leadership issues, enhance the value of their participation in the survey.

The members of the survey sample group were:

1. Lieutenant General (RET) Robert Arter, Deputy Commandant, Command and General Staff College, 1977-1979.

2. Lieutenant General (RET) Robert H. Forman, Deputy Commandant, Command and General Staff College, 1979-1981.

3. General Wayne A. Downing, Commanding General United States Special Operations Command; Deputy Chief of Staff for Training, US Army Training and Doctrine Command, 1988-1989.

4. Major General William M. Steele, Commanding General, 82nd Airborne Division; Deputy Commandant, Command and General Staff College, 1991-1993.

5. Brigadier General Randolph W. House, Deputy Commandant, Command and General Staff College, 1993-present.

6. General (RET) Richard E. Cavazos, BCTP Senior Observer; Commander-in-Chief, Forces Command, 1982-1984.

7. GEN (RET) Edwin H. Burba, BCTP Senior Observer; Commander-in-Chief, Forces Command, 1989-1993.

8. MG John H. Little, Deputy Chief of Staff of the Army for Installation Management; Deputy Commanding General, US Air Defense Artillery School, 1990-1993.

9. LTG Thomas P. Carney, Deputy Chief of Staff of the Army for Personnel; Commanding General, 5th Infantry Division (Mechanized), 1989-1990.

10. LTG James T. Scott, Commanding General, US Army Special Operations Command; Commanding General, 2nd Infantry Division, 1991-1993.

11. MG Charles W. McClain, Jr., Chief of Public Affairs, Office of the Secretary of the Army.

Survey Bias

A possible bias in the survey may be a result of the survey group's impression that the intent of the study was to favorably describe mentoring. Another possible source of bias was the chance that the General Officers would feel inhibited in responding to the questions in a totally off-

the-cuff manner that reflected their true feelings on the subject of mentoring. This possibility could occur if the respondent felt there was a conflict between their personal views and official Army policy. Due to the opened ended nature of the interview process, the researcher's potential bias in looking for answers to fit projected norms or previously collected data could skew the results.[4]

These potential sources of bias were minimized by the coaching and advice of the study's faculty committee on the construct and conduct of the study. The nature of the questions encouraged the survey group to express their opinions rather than what they may have thought the study intended to produce. The anonymity of the respondent's specific answers in this study enhanced the likelihood that their answers were their personal opinion.

One interviewer conducted each of the surveys, eliminating inconsistencies of data collection. To assist in adding internal reliability of the interviewer's role, the interviews were conducted using the same six questions as the central discussion topics. The interviews were recorded from detailed notes taken by the interviewer and supplemented with a tape recorder. Frequently, and at any time during an interview, the interviewer asked the subject to confirm or clarify his answers. These actions ensured the data collection was consistent. The recognition of potential survey bias and the adoption of counter steps to

minimize the bias was essential in ensuring the survey data was accurate.

Survey Instrument

The interview questions used in this study were open-ended. They were designed to elicit responses from the survey group that represented the breadth of the subject of mentoring and its relationship to Army leader development. As was demonstrated in the review of literature, the subject of mentoring is diverse and fosters many different ideas from different people. The use of open-ended questions was more likely to produce accurate responses from the survey group than the use of closed responses that were prepared by the surveyor.[5] The questions used in this study were constructed under the supervision of Dr. Sue Mettlen, Deputy Director, Center for Army Leadership, Command and General Staff College, Fort Leavenworth, Kansas and one of the study's Graduate Faculty Members.

The questions used in the interview survey were:

1. What role should the mentoring process have in leader development?

2. Describe your experiences as a mentor and as a protege.

3. Describe the key aspects of the mentoring process.

4. How should the Army address mentoring in leadership doctrine?

5. How do leaders learn to mentor subordinates?

6. How can the Army improve how it develops mentoring skills and encourages mentoring relationships?

The intent of the questions was to acquire data on the roles of mentoring in the Army (questions 1-3) and how mentoring should be institutionalized in the Army (questions 4-6). The questions were ordered from general to specific for both subject areas. This order allowed the respondent to understand the nature of the subject and to amplify his thoughts in a specific manner. The overlap of questions in each subject area aided in the identification of major themes of mentoring among the members of the survey group.

Frequently, supplemental questions were asked during the course of the interview to probe into the respondent's comments. These questions were asked on an informal basis in an attempt to draw out specific thoughts regarding mentoring in the Army.

During the discussion generated by questions 1-3, if the interviewee did not mention one or more of the aspects of mentoring that were studied by civilian and military researchers, such as teaching, coaching, counseling, role modeling, and sponsoring, he was asked to discuss his views on the particular aspect. Similarly, the interviewee was asked to elaborate on the positive and negative aspects of mentoring in the Army.

The purpose of generating discussions directed at specifics of mentoring was to provide a common basis for analysis and comparison of the interview data and previous

studies on mentoring. The interviews provided data on the mentoring components of teaching, coaching, counseling, role modeling, and sponsoring. They also provided data on mentoring's benefit to: subordinate leader development, the Army, and the mentor. Additionally, data was compiled on the negative aspects of mentoring that included: time management, favoritism, disruption of the assignment process, and over reliance on the mentor. This was done to assist in answering the research question: How does senior leader mentoring enhance their subordinate's leader development process?

The purpose of questions 4-6 was to generate data on how mentoring should be institutionalized in the Army. This issue was seen as having three areas of concern: doctrinal treatment of mentoring; developing mentoring skills; and encouraging mentoring activities. Supplemental questions that were frequently used during the conversations included: asking whether or not the interviewee felt mentoring could be taught in the Army's institutional training pillar of leader development or is it best fostered in the unit assignment or self development pillars; asking how he felt about trying to mentor all subordinates rather than a select set of proteges; asking if he felt mentoring should be emphasized or mandated or if it is best left as an informal, natural occurrence. These types of supplemental questions assisted in maintaining the flow of the interview and served

as transitions between the three primary topic areas of questions 4-6.

Survey Procedures

The interviews were all scheduled 1-3 days in advance and at the convenience of the participants to facilitate the busy schedules of the survey group. The purpose of the interview was stated to assist in a thesis study on mentoring in the Army's leader development process. All members of the survey group expressed a sincere willingness to participate. This willingness was made more likely by the targeting of General Officers who have supported leader development issues. Previous experience in this area increased their awareness of the study's relevance.

Each interview was conducted in a face-to-face, informal setting at a predetermined time and location. The purpose of the interview and the planned method of conducting the interview was initially stated to orient the participant. Additionally, the thesis' conceptual definition of mentoring and the operational definitions of mentor and protege were explained in accordance with the definitions found in Chapter 1. All but two of the survey group received a copy of the survey questions prior to the interview. This increased their familiarity with the interview and allowed them to formulate their ideas in advance.

While the order of the survey questions was intended to help structure the responses and the interviewees' thought processes, many participants' answers applied to more than the immediate question. This became more prevalent as the respondent amplified and clarified his answers. In these cases, responses were recorded under the appropriate question and the interview focus was shifted back to the intended question order. If a question seemed to have been answered previously, the participant was asked if he cared to further amplify his answer. At the conclusion of the interview each of the survey group members presented a summary comment on the subject of mentoring. This served to emphasize their major points regarding the mentoring process.

Analysis of Data

The resulting data gained through the interviews of the survey group was analyzed primarily through a qualitative process of comparisons with each participant and with the previously documented body of literature. As the small survey group was not intended to be a representative sample of a larger population for the purpose of determining that population's opinions, a statistical analysis was not appropriate.

The data collected from the survey of the select body of General Officers was compared to determine trends of agreement to the issues of this study. These trends were

identified based on a majority of the survey group's agreement of opinions about a specific issue. This study concentrated on the issues of: how mentoring impacts on the leader development process; the positive aspects of mentoring; the negative aspects of mentoring; identifying aspects of mentoring in the Army; how mentoring can be encouraged or taught in the Army; and how mentoring should be treated in the Army's doctrine.

The resulting trend analysis formed the basis for comparison of the survey results with previously conducted studies on mentoring's impact on leader development and mentoring in the Army. The result of this comparison was the production of suggested answers to the study's research questions. The content analysis of the suggested research questions' answers enables the study's hypothesis to be accepted or rejected.

Endnotes

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CHAPTER FOUR

ANALYSIS

Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to analyze the study's research data on mentoring's role in leader development and how senior leader mentoring should be treated in the Army's leader development process. The analysis provides the basis for accepting or rejecting the study's hypothesis: The role of the senior leader as a mentor should be integrated into the Army's leader development doctrine.

The analysis is a comparison of the results of this study's exploratory survey of eleven General Officers with the results of previously conducted studies on mentoring. This comparison addresses three of the study's research questions:

1. How does senior leaders' mentoring enhance their subordinates' leader development process?

2. How do widely recognized successful senior leaders believe mentoring should be treated in leader development doctrine?

3. To what extent should doctrine support mentoring as a component of the leader development process?

The fourth research question, "To what extent does current Army doctrine support mentoring as a component of the leader development process?", was discussed in Chapter Two, Review of Literature.

As discussed in Chapter Three, Methodology, the personal interviews of the General Officer survey group provided the exploratory survey data. The interviews resulted in a comprehensive examination of the survey group's views on mentoring's influence on the leader development process and how leader development doctrine should address mentoring. The potential bias of the interviewees to limit their comments to conform to current Army policies was not evident. Each respondent appeared to answer the survey questions fully and without reservation. While some nonconformity was evident, particularly when an interviewee advocated sponsoring, the emphasis of each General Officer seemed to be based on their desire to benefit the Army as a whole rather than the individual. The common desire to benefit the Army provided the necessary linkage between the effects of mentoring on individual leader development and how the Army should treat mentoring in its doctrine.

Results and Discussion

As was demonstrated in Chapter Two, Review of Literature, mentoring is an extremely personal relationship between mentor and protege, or senior and subordinate. The

General Officer interviews resulted in the same conclusion. All interviewees indicated that in the process of mentoring subordinates, senior leaders are required to be involved in a personal interaction with their subordinates. Several respondents prefaced their description of mentoring relationships with he, or I, "spent a lot of time," "personally taught," "sat down and personally discussed." These were common descriptors of how the mentor interacted with the protege to enhance the subordinate's understanding of aspects of leadership or professional development. One interviewee felt strongly enough of the personal nature of mentoring to state that if the leader does not get involved with the personal aspects of subordinate, "the relationship will be superficial."

Differences were evident in how mentoring should be performed and what it consists of when it occurs. These differences were evident among previous researchers and among the survey group participants and are reflected in the following discussion of the components of mentoring.

The validity of the respondents' comments on mentoring was evidenced by their unanimous experience of having a mentor or a protege. All but one member of the survey group credited a mentor or mentors with assisting them in their leader development. Representative comments emphasizing the importance of their mentoring relationships included, "the mentoring I received was the most important

part of my professional development . . . more important than the schooling," and "I would not be here talking with you today if not for the mentoring I received during my career." Another described the mentoring he received as an opportunity to experience "shared learning of lessons" that later proved to help him successfully work with subordinates in combat. The one interviewee who did not credit a mentor for enhancing his career did feel he influenced the careers of several subordinates that he mentored. In spite of his reluctance to credit a mentor for his success, he felt that "mentoring is a social norm of soldiering."

The primary areas this study focused on to answer the research question, "How does senior leader mentoring enhance subordinates' leader development process?" were: the components of a mentoring relationship, the positive aspects of mentoring, and the negative aspects of mentoring.

Components of Mentoring

The interview results indicated the primary components of mentoring were felt to be: teaching, coaching, advising of guiding, counseling, and sponsoring. Not all interviewees included each of these activities as essential components of mentoring. However, these components were cited most frequently overall.

Eight interviewees cited teaching and counseling as an important component of mentoring. Teaching normally was portrayed as a way a mentor instructs the protege on

technical aspects of his job, such as tactics, techniques, and procedures. Teaching took on the form of "leading professional development classes or seminars," discussing lessons learned to add to the subordinate's "sum total of instincts," or working in detail with a subordinate to present a briefing that caused him to "spend a lot more time than if [he] had done the briefing [himself]."

The interviewees who did not include teaching as a component seemed to view mentoring as a non-technical relationship and emphasized the counseling and coaching activities of the senior leader. For all advocates of the counseling role of a mentor, counseling was an effective vehicle to facilitate personal interaction and become aware of the subordinate's needs. The informal counseling of a mentor was seen as a way the mentor could "understand his subordinate" and allow him to "get a sensing of the subordinate's development." Counseling as a mentoring vehicle was also seen as requiring the "protege to understand the counseling subject" in order to be effective. This statement reinforces the personal nature of mentoring because such understanding is likely to be enhanced through a personal relationship.

Coaching was a component of mentoring that was supported by seven of the interviewees. Four included coaching along with teaching while the other three were of the view point that emphasized the personal interaction of

the mentor and protege. These respondents generally viewed coaching as an informal method of teaching a subordinate "how to make a decision" whether it be a career, tactical, or technical decision.

All of the interviews resulted in support for the personal nature of mentoring as was indicated by unanimous citing of the components of either advising or guiding. Advising or guiding was generally thought of as the by product of counseling, or at a minimum leader awareness of a subordinate's career needs. Mentors were credited for advising interviewees on doing such things as, "getting an ORSA (Operational Research Systems Analysis) degree because ORSA was becoming an important part of the Army," or taking a less desirable job in order to "help him learn more about the Army." Through the mentoring components of coaching and advising or guiding, it was felt the mentor could effectively assist the subordinate by showing him a way to improve performance or make a good career choice.

Sponsoring was only rejected outright by three of the interviewees. Of the eight that included sponsoring as a component of mentoring, most (six) qualified their support of sponsoring activities. Some examples of support for sponsoring included: "identifying officers with high potential and helping them [to get assignments] is a mentoring responsibility, [sponsoring] is not necessarily an ugly word"; "interceding to ensure [the protege] gets a fair

shake"; and "sponsoring is a part of mentoring . . . is okay for a mentor to recommend a protege to another senior leader."

The survey group also demonstrated strong feelings that sponsoring should be done carefully. Some common caveats of their support included: "[sponsoring] must fit within the professional development system and [be] professionally rewarding" and, "the mentor must be careful to ensure [sponsoring] does not become incestuous . . . maybe he should limit it to a one time push." The qualifications predominately involved ensuring the sponsoring activities of mentors is done carefully to avoid being detrimental to the Army or to prevent perceptions of favoritism.

Previous researchers identified teaching, coaching, counseling, advising, and sponsoring as the common components of a mentoring relationship. These components were consistent among civilian and military researchers with the exception of sponsoring. Civilian researchers tended to readily embrace the notion of sponsoring as a valuable aspect of mentoring. Military studies showed a reluctance to embrace the concept of sponsoring primarily because of the impression that sponsoring activities may negatively influence careers at the exclusion of those members who are not sponsored.

The interview data identifying mentoring components is consistent with previously conducted studies. The primary exception is the support for sponsoring. While all interviewees mentioned teaching or coaching, advising or guiding, and counseling, the majority also included sponsoring. Even though the support for sponsoring was generally with conditions or reservations, it does show a significant change from the past military approach to this form of mentorship. The interviewee's period of service does not seem to be a reason for this difference. While two of the three opponents of sponsoring were retired, the other two retired General Officers supported sponsoring activities. The difference between this study and previous research is likely explained by the informal interview method that encouraged the interviewee to speak freely about the subject of mentoring.

Positive and Negative Aspects of Mentoring

The interview data reflects overwhelming support of senior leader mentoring by the survey group. The majority of interviewee comments depict mentoring in a positive fashion. All of the interviewees stated mentoring is important to the leader development process or is a leader responsibility. Three of them felt that mentoring was a secret to success in the Army and cited their success or historical examples to demonstrate the results of an influential mentor.

Positive aspects of mentoring that were frequently cited included its "broadening of subordinates' horizons," "assisting subordinates in correcting weaknesses and building on strengths," and "inculcating Army values in the subordinate." These by-products of mentoring were mentioned by less than 50% of the interviewees. The most significant positive aspect of mentoring was found to be its impact on subordinate professional development. Ten interviewees felt this aspect was significant. The most frequently cited purpose for enhancing professional development was to help the subordinate to "achieve his potential."

While the natural tendency of the interviews was to focus on the benefits of mentoring to the protege, nine interviewees also emphasized the positive aspects of mentoring for the mentor. Benefits for the mentor included enhancement of relationships with subordinates, team building, unit cohesion, and improved command climate. These benefits are all related to the commander's natural desire to establish a working environment that fosters teamwork and mutual goal achievement.

The negative aspects of mentoring were not overly stressed by the interviewees. During the discussions of the negative side of mentoring, the most frequently mentioned aspects were: mentoring is a "time intensive activity," "perceptions of favoritism can cause problems," and "mentoring can be exclusionary." The problems of the

perception of favoritism and the exclusion of non-mentored subordinates tended to be discussed by the interviewees who felt that all the functions of mentoring can not be applied to everyone. This inability to fully mentor all subordinates is a result of the time intensive nature of the mentoring relationship.

Results of previous research are consistent with this study's survey data. Commonalities include the military research indications that mentoring is viewed as a beneficial activity as was demonstrated in the 1985 PDOS, the 1985 Lewandowski, and the 1989 Mason studies. Similarly, previous studies have demonstrated that mentoring can have a positive impact on the protege, mentor, and the organization's effectiveness. The negative aspects of mentoring, particularly the perception of favoritism also is consistent between this study and previous studies.

The greatest difference between this study and the bulk of literature dealing with mentoring in the Army is the relative support for sponsoring as an active component of a mentoring relationship. While the civilian community seems to view sponsoring as a good business practice, the military has not embraced it as a healthy component of leader development and has not emphasized it in the doctrine. However, this study's exploratory survey indicates a recognition of sponsoring's role and conditional support for sponsoring activities.

Mentoring's Impact on Army Doctrine

This section of the analysis focuses on how the research data suggests mentoring can be integrated into the Army's leader development doctrine. The study's exploratory survey provides the data to answer the research question, "How do widely recognized successful senior leaders believe mentoring should be treated in leader development doctrine?" Through the analysis of this data, a comparison with previous research findings is made to answer the research question, "To what extent should doctrine support mentoring as a component of the leader development process?" The areas focused on for the analysis were: the implications of doctrinal acceptance of mentoring, and how mentoring can be taught or encouraged within the Army's leader development pillars.

Mentoring in Army Doctrine

The exploratory survey resulted in a divergence of views on how Army doctrine should treat mentoring. Interviewee opinions ranged from a wholehearted support for mentoring's inclusion in doctrine to a certain uneasiness about doctrinally embracing mentoring as a leader development tool.

Seven interviewees felt mentoring should be included in the leader development doctrine. They generally felt there was a need for making the Army aware of the subject. They all cited a need to define mentoring and how it affects

leaders and their subordinates' leader development. Supporters of doctrinal inclusion of mentoring made statements such as: "Doctrine should identify mentoring as a responsibility of all senior leaders"; "We should address mentoring in all three of the leader development pillars"; "We should emphasize professionalism and give [leaders] techniques to help them be better leaders"; and "Doctrine should lay out [mentoring's] constituent parts, describe its key aspects, and emphasize the inherent aspect of command and leadership to personally develop subordinates." While most believed the Army can not dictate mentoring to occur, they felt exposure to mentoring in doctrinal literature would be beneficial to leaders.

Four of the interviewees did not believe mentoring should be a doctrinal activity. They felt the personal nature of the mentoring experience precluded using directives such as field manuals and pamphlets to encourage leaders to mentor subordinates. It was emphasized by these interviewees, as well as most of the supporters of mentoring in doctrine, that the Army cannot direct mentoring in its complete form to occur. Reluctance to include mentoring in the doctrine also seemed to be result of the interviewee's risk analysis. Several of them felt the potential negative impact of mandating mentoring in doctrine outweighed its benefits. One respondent stated, "We can not say 'keep an eye on the guy to the top', we need to develop all

subordinates as individuals. Mentoring may become detrimental to all others." Another stated mentoring "may not be broken now, and may not be a responsibility for leader development doctrine." He further cautioned that "some things change remarkably when put in a box, mentoring may be one of those things."

The survey group consensus was that certain aspects of mentoring such as teaching, coaching, and counseling can be directed and required of all leaders. The other aspects that require a more personal involvement such as advising or guiding and sponsoring would be more difficult to mandate through doctrine.

The survey data clearly supports the conclusion of the review of literature that mentoring is not clearly defined. The interviewees who supported doctrinal inclusion of mentoring stated a need to define mentoring in order to establish the parameters by which leaders are expected to act.

Previous researchers have demonstrated formal, directed mentoring programs enjoy some degree of success. The difficulty in evaluating the programs is defining what makes the program successful. Civilian organizations such as the Jewel Tea Company that espouse successful mentoring programs tend to provide a catalyst for initiating a mentor-protege relationship by matching personnel by function and experience and then allowing the relationship to take its

natural course. While these organizations can claim success in encouraging a beneficial relationship that improved organizational performance, no evidence has been shown that indicates these relationships would not have been formed without organizational intervention.

The survey data reflects this dichotomy of mentoring's benefit to leader development vice the difficulty in mandating personal relationships in order to enhance organizational performance. Four interviewees suggested a dual method of examining mentoring in the organization. They viewed the senior leader as performing two levels of mentoring. The first level involves the teaching, coaching, and counseling that he provides to all subordinates. The second level involves the in-depth, personal aspects of mentoring that includes advising and sponsoring. The second level mentoring requires a recognition by the senior leader of subordinate potential for increased service to the Army as well as a mutual compatibility between senior and subordinate.

The survey results indicate the need to reinforce mentoring as a leader development tool in the Army's doctrinal literature. The first level mentoring is currently reflected in the Army's leader development doctrine. Teaching, coaching, and counseling are activities that are reinforced throughout all the leadership manuals and pamphlets. Recognizing that some aspects of mentoring

already exists in the doctrine, the research data indicates there is also a need to tie in the other aspects of mentoring. Doctrinally recognizing the two levels of mentoring activities may be a way to legitimize all aspects of mentoring that have been demonstrated as beneficial to the organization, the leader, and the subordinate.

Mentoring in the Leader Development Process

In examining how mentoring should be treated in the Army's doctrine, the ability to teach or encourage mentoring should be reviewed. To doctrinally espouse a concept that cannot be implemented within the existing Army structure would likely invalidate the concept. The existing structure of the Army's leader development process is the three pillars: self development, operational assignments, and institutional training. This study's exploratory survey provided data on how mentoring is learned as a leader experiences the three pillars of leader development.

The interviewees unanimously felt mentoring is currently learned by experiencing or observing a mentoring relationship. Senior leaders learn to mentor "by being mentored" was the most common response. The focus of this method of learning occurs during a leader's operational assignment experience. The unit commander is the catalyst for leader development in the operational assignment pillar. His ability to mentor is observed by subordinates. The data indicates that subordinates learn how to mentor based on

their observation and experiences. Their experiences, both positive and negative, shape how leaders will integrate leader development tools into their leadership styles.

This learning through observation is also available in the institutional training pillar. The Army's school system, at the recommendation of the 1985 PDOS, has emphasized the use of small group instruction. This method of instruction has been instituted to increase student and teacher interaction in order to increase the learning experience. Five of the interviewees noted the interaction of students and teachers enhanced the learning of mentorship. They cited the small group instruction in the OACs, CAS3, CGSOC, and SAMS as positive institutional mentoring programs. However, they also indicated the true mentoring nature of the relationship usually manifested itself after the student left the institution and used the instructor as a source of advice and counsel during subsequent assignments.

Six of the interviewees felt mentoring should be taught in the Army's school system. This seems to reflect a view that merely learning by observation may not be sufficient to fully accept a doctrinal concept. While most of the survey group who supported teaching mentoring focused on the field grade lev l courses such as the Command and General Staff School and the Pre-Command Course, two

recommended including mentoring instruction in the Officer Advanced Courses.

The method of instruction suggested most frequently was the use of "vignettes" and/or "historical examples of successful mentoring relationships." It was felt that using vignettes could assist in defining the organizational limits of mentoring by providing an example for students to see how effective and acceptable mentoring activities can be conducted. This method is similar to how Army schools teach other courses in interpersonal relationships such as equal opportunity, sexual harassment, and ethics. These interviewees also indicated the publication and distribution of vignettes, historical examples, and studies on mentoring in the Army could serve as a self-development tool.

Of the survey group supporting mentoring instruction, only one suggested taking immediate actions such as publishing an Army White Paper to influence the field. The majority of the survey group seemed to feel that learning how to mentor is an evolutionary process that is dependent upon experiencing the full spectrum of the leader development process. This was indicated by comments such as: "The filtering down of the mentoring example set by senior leaders will most encourage mentoring in upcoming leaders"; "treat mentoring like leadership, give leaders the tools and let the individuals take and work with what they are comfortable with"; and "We can try to teach [mentoring]

but it is evolutionary in nature, mentors develop themselves." The survey data clearly indicates that while mentoring is most often learned through experience, if the Army embraces senior leader mentoring into its doctrine, there should be a concurrent inclusion of programs to enhanc mentoring instruction in the institutional training and self development pillars of leader development.

Summary

The analysis of this study's survey data and previously conducted studies indicate senior leader mentoring is a valuable leader development activity. Its benefits to the subordinate, leader, and organization outweighs its negative aspects. Because of its benefits, the survey group supported including senior leader mentoring in the Army's leader development doctrine.

The primary negative aspects were found to be mentoring's exclusionary nature due to the mentor's time constraints and the perception of favoritism by unmentored subordinates. While the data demonstrates mentoring's benefits supersede its negative aspects, the survey group felt the issue of perceptions was significant enough to ensure measures are taken to reduce subordinate misperceptions. This produced a strong indication that mentoring should be clearly defined and limited in accordance with the Army's organizational needs. The survey data also indicated a need to place the good of the

organization above the individual concerns of leaders and subordinates.

The data analysis shows the primary components of mentoring are teaching, coaching, counseling, advising or guiding, and sponsoring. These components are consistent across civilian and military studies as well as this study's exploratory survey. This study's survey group indicated a possible dual nature of mentoring in the Army. This view of mentoring applies teaching, coaching, and counseling to a first level of mentoring that benefits all subordinates and applies advising or guiding and sponsoring to a second level of mentoring for subordinates with greater potential. This dual nature of mentoring seems to be a way to avoid misperceptions and benefit the Army's organizational needs.

To implement mentoring as a part of the Army's doctrine, the survey group's responses indicate instructional tools such as vignettes and case studies can be used. This method seems to be seen as a way to demonstrate how leaders should properly conduct mentoring activities. They also allow leaders to learn mentoring skills in the institutional training and self development pillars of the leader development process.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

The purpose of this study was to examine senior leader mentoring and to analyze the role of senior leaders in the Army's leader development process. Specifically, the study tested the hypothesis: the role of the senior leader as a mentor should be integrated into the Army's leader development doctrine.

Four research subquestions were examined to provide the basis for the analysis. The four subquestions were:

1. How does senior leaders' mentoring enhance their subordinates' leader development process?

2. To what extent does current Army doctrine support mentoring as a component of the leader development process?

3. How do widely recognized successful senior leaders believe mentoring should be treated in leader development doctrine?

4. To what extent should doctrine support mentoring as a component of the leader development process?

The method of analysis used in conducting this study was to compare the results of the literature review data and

the survey data to suggest answers to the research questions.

An extensive review of literature was conducted to gain insights on the leadership phenomenon of mentorship and to analyze the Army's doctrinal treatment of mentoring. This study focused the review of literature on the use of mentoring as a leader development tool. The review of literature provided the basis to answer the research questions 1 and 2.

An exploratory survey was conducted of eleven General Officers to compile data on the effects of mentoring in Army officer leader development. The survey results provided the basis for answering research question 3 and to provided data for the comparison with the literature review results. This comparison was the method used to answer the fourth research question.

The results of this study's analysis indicate senior leader mentoring is overall beneficial to the development of leaders. This benefit is realized both in the civilian and military communities. Mentoring is an activity that requires a personal involvement of a senior with a subordinate for the purpose of developing the subordinate's skills. Some spin-off benefits of mentoring has been shown to be increased prestige for the mentor and enhanced effectiveness for the organization. The negative aspects of mentoring are largely centered around its exclusionary

nature. Favoritism has been shown to be detrimental to the senior, subordinate, and the organization. The perception of exclusion has been shown to be as damaging as actual exclusionary practices. To effectively use mentoring as a subordinate developmental tool, the organization should take steps to prevent exclusionary activities or the perception of exclusion.

Conclusions

The general conclusion of this study is that senior leader mentoring is a valuable activity that contributes to the development of leaders. Previously conducted studies and this study's exploratory survey indicate mentoring can be beneficial to developing the Army's leaders. As such, it has a place in the Army's leader development doctrine. Therefore, the study's hypothesis, "the role of the senior leader as a mentor should be integrated into the Army's leader development doctrine" is accepted.

Conclusions relating to the study's four research subquestions follow. The discussion of the subquestion research conclusions serve as answers to the questions.

1. How does senior leaders' mentoring enhance their subordinates' leader development process?

Based on the research, mentoring enhances leader development by providing a vehicle by which experienced senior leaders can directly influence their subordinates' development. The principl(aspects of a mentoring

relationship has been demonstrated to be teaching, coaching, counseling, advising, and sponsoring. The personal nature of the mentor-protege relationship seems to be the primary facilitator. Mentorship can be viewed as an effective means of providing opportunities to further a subordinate's growth.

2. To what extent does current Army doctrine support mentoring as a component of the leader development process?

As has been demonstrated, the Army's current doctrine does not fully support mentoring as a component of the leader development process. While the doctrinal literature does mention mentoring, it does not define the term or describe its nature. It also does not support the mentoring aspect of sponsoring. The Army's leader development doctrine discusses mentoring as an aspect of leadership on the same level as such activities as teaching and counseling. This study indicates these activities are subsets or components of the greater activity of mentoring. While not all teachers are mentors, all mentors are seen as teachers.

The Army's doctrinal literature includes, in incomplete terms, mentoring as part of the leader development process. However, it is not clearly defined. Senior leaders will likely not be able to integrate mentoring into their leader development programs given its

current doctrinal treatment unless they have been fortunate enough to experience a good mentoring relationship.

3. How do widely recognized successful senior leaders believe mentoring should be treated in leader development doctrine?

Previous studies such as the 1985 PDOS and Mason's 1989 study have demonstrated that Army senior leaders support mentoring. The reason mentoring has not been embraced fully in doctrine seems to be due to the feeling it can not be mandated for all leaders and subordinates and is therefore exclusionary. There also is evidence of opposition to any official support for the mentoring behavior of sponsoring in the Army. This is manifested by the fact sponsoring is not mentioned in any of the doctrinal literature and that sponsoring was excluded from the 1985 PDOS recommendations.

This study's survey results indicate mentoring is still a desirable leader development tool. It reflects a feeling that mentoring is a valuable way to identify talent and to develop that talent for the betterment of the Army. The analysis of the survey data indicates the Army's leader development doctrine should define mentoring and describe how it affects leaders, their subordinates, and units. The survey results demonstrate the primary issue in encouraging senior leader mentoring is that it is difficult to mandate for all leader-subordinate relationships and would therefore

exclude some subordinates. This exclusion as well as the perception of exclusion was felt by the survey group to be harmful to the Army and would have to be negated to fully support mentoring as a doctrinal concept.

The survey data supports the teaching of mentoring in the Army's school system. The interviewees indicated that the use of vignettes and historical examples would enhance the teaching of mentoring in both the institutional training and self development pillars of the leader development process.

4. To what extent should doctrine support mentoring as a component of the leader development process?

The analysis of this study's survey data and previously conducted studies indicate senior leader mentoring is a valuable leader development activity, and as such, has a place in the Army's doctrine. Senior leader mentoring activities should be defined in accordance with the Army's leader development goals and limits established to prevent abuses of potential exclusionary practices that may occur in a mentoring relationship.

Relying on experiences within the operational assignments to teach leaders how to mentor is not consistent with the Army's leader development process. In order to fully develop leaders, the three pillars must be integrated and be capable of enhancing learned behavior. Mentoring

should be integrated in all three pillars of the leader development process in order to be effective.

A method to reduce the potential for exclusionary practices yet retain mentoring in the doctrine has been shown by describing it as a two tiered activity. The first tier involves the aspects of teaching, coaching, and counseling that is currently part of the doctrinal responsibility of senior leaders. The second tier follows the identification of talent and includes the aspects of advising and sponsoring for the purpose of developing that talent for the good of the Army.

Recommendations

The following recommendations are made on the basis of this study's analysis:

1. The Army should consider including mentoring as a senior leader responsibility for the development of subordinates. Describing the two tiered approach to mentoring can offer all leaders and units the benefit of a mentoring approach to leader development without being perceived as exclusionary. A possible way to begin the inclusion of a mentoring approach to leader development would be to include mentoring as an expectation of senior leaders in the upcoming revision of FM 22-103, Leadership and Command at Senior Levels.

2. Develop vignettes and historical examples of mentoring relationships that conform with the expected

behaviors that have been determined as beneficial to the leader development process. These can be published and distributed as leader development information bulletins and included in the Army's school system as well as in future MQS manuals. These actions could be used to integrate mentoring into the institutional training and self development pillars of the leader development process.

3. This study should be replicated using a much larger survey group. A General Officer conference on leader development issues or an upcoming LDAP may be good forums to discuss the inclusion of mentoring in the Army's doctrine. A larger representation of senior leaders currently serving in positions of responsibility for Army doctrinal concepts and leader development issues should be able to develop acceptable parameters for mentoring in the Army.

Recommendations for Future Research

The following recommendations for future research could further the understanding of the impact of senior leader mentoring and its applicability to leader development doctrine.

1. Survey AWC, CGSOC, SAMS, PCC, and CAS3 to compare the impact of mentoring on different officer grade levels. This would give the researcher a complete picture of the mentoring activity from the perspective of the protege and in some cases, the mentor. It would also present a picture of the impact of perceptions of exclusion

as it would be likely that not all surveyed students will have experienced a mentoring relationship.

Typical survey questions would include: Have you experienced a mentoring relationship; as a protege or a mentor? What aspects of mentoring were evident in the relationship; teaching, coaching, counseling, advising or guiding, or sponsoring? Which aspects were most important? Is mentoring activities unfair to some individuals and why? Is having a senior leader mentor a requirement for promotion or command? How did you learn to mentor your subordinates?

2. Conduct a study of mentoring's role in NCO, WO, and DA Civilian leader development. This study could ensure any doctrinal treatment of mentoring is vertically and horizontally integrated in the Army's leader development process.

3. Conduct an Army-wide survey to determine the application of mentoring as it is currently being conducted or experienced. This study indicates that senior leader mentoring can be a valuable component of the leader development process. This conclusion is consistent with many previous civilian and military studies. As such, there is adequate justification for applying Mason's survey to the entire Army population in order to give valuable feedback on issues such as the impact of gender and cultural differences on mentoring programs in units. If the survey questions are combined with Lewandowski's survey questions, the research

results may provide conclusions on the relationship between mentoring and career progression.

These suggestions are intended to provide a basis for conducting further research into this important area of leadership. This study indicates that senior leader mentoring is a valuable leader development activity and any measures taken, or studies conducted, to further the infusion of a mentoring approach to leadership is likely to benefit the Army.

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